

Scotland's Rural College

## **An assessment of factors controlling N<sub>2</sub>O and CO<sub>2</sub> emissions from crop residues using different measurement approaches**

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## Abstract

Management of plant residues plays an important role in maintaining soil quality and nutrient availability for plants and microbes. However, there is considerable uncertainty regarding the factors controlling residue decomposition and their effects on greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions from the soil. This uncertainty is created both by the complexity of the processes involved and limitations in the methodologies commonly used to quantify GHG emissions. We therefore investigated the addition of two soil residues (durum wheat and faba bean) with similar C:N ratios but contrasting fibres, lignin and cellulose contents on nutrient dynamics and GHG emission from two contrasting soils: a low-soil organic carbon (SOC), high pH clay soil (Chromic Haploxerert) and a high-SOC, low pH sandy-loam soil (Eutric Cambisol). In addition, we compared the effectiveness of the use of an Infrared Gas Analyzer (IRGA) and Photoacoustic Gas Analyser (PGA) to measure GHG emissions with more conventional gas chromatography (GC). There was a strong correlation between the different measurement techniques which strengthens the case for the use of continuous measurements approaches involving IRGA and PGA analyses in studies of this type. The unamended Cambisol released 286% more CO<sub>2</sub> and 30% more N<sub>2</sub>O than the Haploxerert. Addition of plant residues increased CO<sub>2</sub> emissions more in the Haploxerert than Cambisol and N<sub>2</sub>O emission more in the Cambisol than in the Haploxerert. This may have been a consequence of the high N stabilization efficiency of the Haploxerert resulting from its high pH and the effect of the clay on mineralization of native organic matter. These results have implications management of plant residues in different soil types.

**Key words:** crop residues, carbon dioxide, greenhouse gas, nitrous oxide, residue decomposition

## Introduction

Agriculture forestry and related land uses are responsible for just under 25% of global greenhouse gas emissions (IPCC 2014). Agronomic practices are recognized as key opportunities to reduce GHG emissions (particularly for N<sub>2</sub>O and CO<sub>2</sub>). The addition of plant residues to the soil from crops and cover crops is of significant importance to crop management strategies to enhance soil organic C (SOC) and soil fertility, and to offset agricultural GHG emissions (Lugato et al. 2014). However, decomposition of residues will also add nitrogen (N) to the soil, and with the default N<sub>2</sub>O Emission Factor of 1% of the added N in the IPCC (2006) methodology, a proportional increase in estimated N<sub>2</sub>O emissions is predicted. However, IPCC predictions have been developed around limited experimental data and recent studies indicate that default Emission Factors may overestimate residues N<sub>2</sub>O emissions (Jeuffroy et al. 2013). GHG emission after crop residue amendment is related to both its decomposition and the microbial activity of soil and depends from several factors linked to the environment, soil properties and crop residue traits (Aulakh et al. 1991; Powlson et al. 2011). In particular, the GHG emission from the soil are mediated by soil porosity (Killham et al. 1993), pH (Mörkved et al. 2006), organic C and N content (Hayakawa et al. 2009), microbial community (Graf et al. 2016), texture (Chen et al. 2013), soil temperature (Kesik et al. 2006), and moisture content, all of which regulate gas production processes and emission (Skiba and Ball 2002; Rees et al. 2013). Moreover, crop residue addition to the soil can also

indirectly affect GHG emissions, providing a source of readily available C and N in the soil, stimulating microbial activity (Aulakh et al. 2001; Huang et al. 2004), promoting the decomposition of native soil organic carbon, and altering soil aeration, water holding capacity, oxidation and denitrification processes in the soil (Fontaine et al. 2004; Derrien et al. 2014).

With regard to the crop residue characteristics, the most important property is its C:N ratio that determines organic N dynamics in the soil (Heal et al. 1997; Baggs et al. 2003; Al-Kaisi and Yin 2005; Garcia-Ruiz and Baggs 2007). In particular, it has been shown that higher N<sub>2</sub>O emissions occur from soil after the incorporation of residues with low C:N ratio, such as legumes, rather than after cereal straw as a result of mineralization processes (Baggs et al. 2000; Huang et al. 2004; Raiesi 2006). On the contrary, low N<sub>2</sub>O emissions were reported following the application of crop residues with high C:N ratios (Gentile et al. 2008). However, it has also been shown that the incorporation of crop residues with high C:N ratios may provide the energy for the denitrification process, and this can increase N<sub>2</sub>O emissions (Sarkodie-Addo et al. 2003). Other crop residue properties can play an important role on the decomposition process influencing microbial activity, including lignin (Palm and Rowland 1997), lignin:N ratios (Curtin et al. 1998) polyphenol (Muhammad et al. 2010), water soluble phenolic contents (Palm and Rowland 1997), percentages of soluble C and N (Cogle et al. 1989), neutral detergent fiber (NDF). This understanding of the multiple drivers responsible for GHG emissions from crop residues is helpful in interpreting research findings. Baggs et al. (2000) found an increase of N<sub>2</sub>O emissions after lettuce incorporation into the soil due to its low C:N ratio. However, Tanveer et al. (2014) and Zou et al. (2004) observed a reduction of N<sub>2</sub>O emission after incorporation of low C:N crop residue of corn and rice straw. This apparent contradiction may be a consequence of the interaction of multiple factors controlling emission. Shan and Yan (2013), in a meta-analysis, reported that the application of canola, bean and lettuce residues increased N<sub>2</sub>O emissions more than with other kind of crop residues. With regard to CO<sub>2</sub> emissions Muhammad et al. (2010) observed higher emissions in soil amended with alfalfa than with sugarcane, maize, sorghum and cotton and attributed such result to a release of more easily degradable and soluble C in alfalfa than with other crop residues. Chen et al. (2015) observed a general increase of CO<sub>2</sub> emissions from a soil amended with different types of residues but with higher cumulative emissions in peanuts, soybean and maize than in other cereals due to their higher N and lower neutral detergent fiber (NDF) content.

An accurate quantification of CO<sub>2</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>O emission following return of crop residues to soils is required to develop efficient strategies to reduce the environmental impact of farming practices. Presently, static chamber methods coupled with gas chromatography (GC) analysis are the most widely technique used to quantify GHG losses in field and laboratory experiments. However, the method is time consuming and entails a wide series of operations from the manual sampling to the laboratory analysis, introducing errors, and making difficult to implement high resolution monitoring over time (Tirol-Padre et al. 2014). In order to obtain high resolution temporal data, InfraRed Gas Analyzer (IRGA) and Photoacoustic Gas Analyzer (PGA) has been used in agricultural GHG emissions studies (Luo and Zhou 2006; Lawrence et al. 2009; Stackhouse et al. 2011). IRGA allows to measure CO<sub>2</sub> fluxes using an infra-red sensor and PGA is a photo-acoustic infrared multi-gas monitoring system that allows to measure simultaneously CO<sub>2</sub>, N<sub>2</sub>O and CH<sub>4</sub>. Measurement of CO<sub>2</sub> efflux by IRGA systems are usually based on different methodology proposed by the manufacturing companies and there isn't an internationally recognized protocol creating

103 uncertainties in the comparison between different instruments (Mills et al. 2011). PGA has been  
104 widely used in field experiments and several authors found a high correlation between CO<sub>2</sub> and  
105 N<sub>2</sub>O measurements made with PGA and GC (Klein et al. 2008; Iqbal et al. 2013). Other authors  
106 reported an overestimation of emission on the data obtained with PGA than GC (Yamulki and  
107 Jarvis 1999). Furthermore, the precision of measurement may also depend from the soil type and  
108 soil cover, which can affect the assessment of emission spatial variability. The precision of the  
109 various instruments (IRGA and PGA comparing to the widely used CG) in measuring GHGs  
110 emission has never been measured. However, in contrast to the GC-based methodology, these  
111 systems are able to provide a continuous measurement of the GHGs emission, thus allowing to  
112 better study the trend of the emission from the soil and its relationship with agronomical  
113 management techniques and environmental variability. In addition, IRGA and PGA has not been  
114 previously directly compared.

115 Soil GHG emissions from Cambisols which occur widely in cool temperate climates have  
116 widely studied in the past whereas the effect of soil characteristics typical of the Mediterranean  
117 such as vertisols, with their high clay content high pH and low organic carbon content, on crop  
118 residue decomposition and gaseous emissions are less known. The aims of the present study were:  
119 (i) to evaluate the short-term emissions of N<sub>2</sub>O and CO<sub>2</sub> after the addition of two crop residues  
120 with different structural fibre composition (either faba bean and wheat), in two soils with  
121 contrasting proprieties, a Chromic Haploxerert with a high clay content and a Eutric Cambisol with  
122 a sandy-loam texture; (ii) asses the flexibility of two systems for the high temporal resolution  
123 measurements (IRGA and PGA), to measure soil GHG emissions from soils with different emission  
124 levels in controlled conditions. Experiments were undertaken in a controlled pot setup over a short  
125 period and in the absence of plants in order to simulate the effects of crop residues between  
126 cropping cycles. These conditions avoided strong time-related variation in the emission due to the  
127 impoverishment of the ready available N pool and living plant C inputs to and mineral uptake from  
128 soil, which could have altered the emission rates.

129

## 130 **Materials and Methods**

131 An experiment was established during 2014 in controlled environment conditions at  
132 Scotland's Rural College (SRUC) Edinburgh. A complete randomized factorial design with three  
133 replicates was adopted. Treatments were soil: Eutric Cambisol and Chromic Haploxerert (Vertisol);  
134 and kind of plant residue added: faba bean residue, durum wheat residue or unamended control. The  
135 Cambisol was collected at nine locations per plot from the top 20 cm at Bush Estate (lat, 55° 51' N,  
136 long, 3° 12' W; 199 m a.s.l.) near Edinburgh (Scotland), the Haploxerert (Vertisol) was collected at  
137 the Pietranera Farm (37°30' N, 13°31' E; 178 m a.s.l.) in Santo Stefano Quisquina (Sicily). Both  
138 soils were sampled in early October 2014. Soil was collected from conventional tilled experimental  
139 plots at the Bush Estate in Scotland and from conventionally tilled plots at Pietranera farm in Sicily  
140 (Table 1). At both sites the soil was collected in plots previously cultivated with cereals (wheat in  
141 Sicily and barley in Scotland). Further information regarding the soil sampling sites are available in  
142 Vinten et al. (1992) and Amato et al. (2013), respectively. Before establishing the experiment, soil  
143 was air-dried and passed through a 2 mm mesh and visible roots and organic residues were  
144 removed, and then mixed thoroughly before use; water hold capacity of both soils were measured  
145 on a weight basis. Oven-dried crop biomass of wheat (cv. Simeto) and faba bean (cv. Gemini) (see

146 Table 2 residues traits), cultivated at Pietranera farm, were ground to pass a 1 mm screen, mixed,  
147 and used as crop residues.

148 Pots were 10 cm in diameter and 25 cm high, and were filled with 1.5 kg of soil to achieve  
149 a bulk density of  $1.25 \text{ g cm}^{-3}$ . Crop residues were mixed with the soil at a rate of 5 g crop residue  
150 per kg of soil. The bottom part of the pot (15-25cm depth) was filled with sand. Then, pots were  
151 brought to 60-70% of the water holding capacity. After each sampling an amount of water  
152 corresponding to the evaporation losses was added to each pot and the pots were randomized inside  
153 the greenhouse. During the experiment, soil temperature was recorded using a temperature data  
154 logger (EL-USB-3, Lascar Electronics, United Kingdom).

155 Both  $\text{CO}_2$  and  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  soil emissions were measured three times per week, on 22 sampling  
156 occasions, by means of two different methods: an online Infrared Gas Analyzer (IRGA, EGM-4  
157  $\text{CO}_2$ , PP system, USA) and a Photoacoustic Gas Analyser (PGA, INNOVA 1412, LumaSense  
158 Technologies A/S, USA). Measurements were always taken between the 9:00 and the 15:00 and  
159 each time the equipment order was reversed. The IRGA was equipped with a SRC-1 Soil  
160 Respiration Chamber equipped with a fan, with of 10 cm of diameter and 15 cm height, sealed on  
161 top of the pot by an airtight rubber. The air from the chamber was sent to the analyser at flow rate  
162 of  $0.1 \text{ l min}^{-1}$ . After 15 seconds of flushing, the chamber was placed above the pot, equilibrated for  
163 15 seconds, then the  $\text{CO}_2$  concentration was measured every 5 seconds and the flux was calculated  
164 from the concentration increase over time until a good linear fit was obtained.

165 The PGA was equipped with a PVC chamber with a 10 cm of diameter and 10 cm height,  
166 connected to the equipment by two small rubber pipe on the chamber top, and sealed above the pot  
167 by a rubber seal. The analyser automatically pumped  $\sim 0.1 \text{ l min}^{-1}$  of air from inside the chambers  
168 and performed the analysis with a 5-second sampling integration time and a fixed flushing time: 8  
169 seconds for the chamber and 3 s for the tubing. The PGA instrument was calibrated in the lab for  
170  $\text{CO}_2$  and  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  by the LumaSense technologies company, with a gas concentration of 3496.8 ppm for  
171  $\text{CO}_2$  and 51.32 ppm for  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$ , and its detection limits were of 1.5 ppm for  $\text{CO}_2$  and 0.03 ppm for  
172  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$ . The equipment performed a built-in compensation for water and cross interferences. Before  
173 the flux measurements, the instrument analyzed ambient air for about 30 min until readings for  $\text{CO}_2$   
174 and  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  were stable. The overall time for sampling and measurement of  $\text{CO}_2$  and  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$   
175 concentration and dew-point temperature was approximately 70 seconds; each measurement was  
176 made every two minutes.

177 Gas flux measurement ( $\text{CO}_2$  from both IRGA and PGA, and  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  from PGA), in two  
178 different periods during the experiment, were compared with analyses by gas chromatography in  
179 order to confirm the reliability of the instruments.  $\text{CO}_2$  and  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  emissions were measured using the  
180 static closed chamber technique (Hutchinson and Mosier 1981). A chamber of polyvinyl chloride  
181 (PVC), with 10 cm of diameter and 15 height and a lid with a gas sampling port was sealed above  
182 each pot for 60 min. Before and after this period gas samples were collected in portable evacuated  
183 glass vials (Chadwick et al. 2014), transported to the lab and analyzed by a gas chromatography  
184 (Agilent 7890a, Agilent Technologies Ltd, Stockport, UK) equipped with a thermal conductivity  
185 detector (TCD, detection limit for  $\text{CO}_2$  of 23.9 ppm) and an electron capture detector (ECD,  
186 detection limit for  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  of 0.074 ppm). Fluxes of  $\text{CO}_2$  and  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  were calculated from the increase in

187 concentration in the chamber corrected for the chamber air temperature using the following relation  
 188 (Jantalia et al. 2008):  
 189

$$f = \frac{\Delta C}{\Delta t} \times \frac{V}{A} \times \frac{m}{Vm}$$

190  
 191 where  $\Delta C/\Delta t$  is the gas increment during the chamber closure time,  $V$  is the volume of the chamber,  
 192  $A$  is the soil area,  $m$  is the molecular weight of the gases and  $Vm$  is the gas molar volume corrected  
 193 for the ambient temperature.

194 The total amount of  $N_2O$  and  $CO_2$  emissions were calculated by linear interpolation between  
 195 consecutive using the following equation (Cai et al. 2012):  
 196

$$\text{Cumulative emission of } N_2O \text{ or } CO_2 = \sum_{i=1}^n (F_i + F_{i+1})/2 \times (t_{i+1} - t_i) \times 24$$

197 where  $F$  are the emission flow of  $N_2O$  and  $CO_2$  at the  $i^{th}$  measurement,  $(t_{i+1}-t_i)$  is the time length  
 198 between two adjacent measurements and  $n$  is the total measurement number.

199 Plant dry matter (oven drying), ether extract (Method 920.39, diethyl ether, traditional  
 200 Soxhlet extraction), total N (Kjeldahl) and crude protein (calculated from the total N by standard  
 201 Jones factor,  $N \times 6.25$ ) were analyzed following methods described by AOAC (1995). Neutral  
 202 detergent fibre (NDF), acid detergent fibre (ADF), acid detergent lignin (ADL), cellulose and  
 203 hemicellulose were analysed following the sequential method proposed by Van Soest et al. (1991)  
 204 and using a Fibertec System M 1020 extractor (Foss, Höganäs). The soluble fraction was obtained  
 205 by boiling 1 g of ground residues in deionized water (100°C) for 30 min followed by extraction  
 206 with a neutral detergent (EDTA and Na lauryl sulphate at 100°C) for 60 min to obtain the NDF  
 207 fraction. ADF extraction was performed by boiling the sample for 60 minutes in an acid detergent  
 208 solution (Cetyltrimethylammonium (CTAB) in  $H_2SO_4$ ). Then, the residual detergent was removed  
 209 by washing the sample with hot water. Finally, the ADF was then treated with 72%  $H_2SO_4$  (w/w) for  
 210 3 hours at ambient temperature and the final mass of the non-extractable fraction was considered as  
 211 lignin (ADL). Cellulose was calculated as the difference between ADF and ADL while  
 212 hemicellulose as the difference between NDF and ADF. Ash and ADL ash measurements were  
 213 performed at 550°C for 4 h. For each residue type the analyses were performed in triplicate. Total  
 214 C of biomasses and soils were analysed by an automated analyser (Flash 2000, Thermo-Finnigan,  
 215 Glasgow, UK).

216 At the end of the experiment, two soil samples from each pot were collected: one from the  
 217 top to 5 cm depth and the other from 5 to 15 cm depth. Soil pH was measured in a 1:5 (v/v)  
 218 suspension of soil in water. Dissolved organic C (DOC) content in the soil was determined by a  
 219 total organic C analyser (DC-80, Rosemount Analytical, Inc. Dohrmann Division, USA) after the  
 220 removal of inorganic C by acidifying the sample. Concentrations of  $NH_4^+$ -N and  $NO_3^-$ -N were  
 221 determined from 10 g of soil extracted with 100 ml of 2M KCl (1:5 ratio); then the filtered extract  
 222  $NH_4^+$ -N and  $NO_3^-$ -N concentrations were measured by a continuous flow analysis autoanalyser  
 223 (SAN SYSTEM, Skalar Analytical B.V., Netherland).

224 Analysis of variance (ANOVA) was undertaken using a Mixed model according to the  
225 statistical design in SAS environment (SAS Institute 2008). Treatment means were separated using  
226 *p* differences of the LSMEANS.

227 Regressions between GC and IRGA, and GC and PGA, for CO<sub>2</sub>, and for CO<sub>2</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>O,  
228 respectively, were computed. Soil CO<sub>2</sub> emission rate measurements from IRGA and PGA were  
229 compared on the 22 sampling occasions. Comparisons were made by a regression analysis and the  
230 index of agreement (IoAd) (SAS Institute 2008; Bennett et al. 2013).

## 231 **Results**

232 The temperature inside the greenhouse during the experiment ranged from a minimum of  
233 17°C to the maximum of 28.5°C, with an average of 20.5°C, while soil temperature ranged from a  
234 maximum of 27°C to a minimum of 20°C with a slight decreasing trend from the start to the end of  
235 the experiment (Fig. 1). The chemical composition of the plant residues used in the present study,  
236 expressed as percentages, are reported in Table 2. The N content of faba bean and durum wheat  
237 were comparable (1.4% vs 1.3%, respectively). With regards to the other constituents, marked  
238 differences were found between the plant residues. In particular, faba bean had higher ADF (+66  
239 %), ADL (+186%), cellulose (+60 %), and NDF (+19%) than wheat, and a lower content of  
240 hemicellulose (−51 %) (Table 2).

## 242 **Carbon and nitrogen dynamics**

243 The Haploxerert used in the present study had a high pH (8.1) and high clay and low total C  
244 content (1.39%), whereas the Cambisol had a near neutral (6.6), low clay and high C content  
245 (2.48%). Interaction between soil and residue type for these soil properties by the end of the  
246 experiment was strong and significant (*p*<0.05) (Table 3). As expected, the addition of organic  
247 residues mostly increased DOC in both the top- and sub-soil layers of the Haploxerert (on average  
248 by 52.5% compared to unamended control), whereas there was no significant effect on the  
249 Cambisol.

250 The soil incubation, either with or without plant residues incorporation, decreased soil pH by  
251 0.86 in the Cambisol and 0.33 in the Haploxerert. The effect of the addition of organic residues to  
252 the soil pH varied with both the soil and kind of biomass incorporated: in the Cambisol, addition of  
253 wheat residues significantly decreased pH in the top- and sub-layers when compared with the  
254 unamended control whereas addition of faba bean residues did not influence soil pH. In the  
255 Haploxerert, no effect of the addition of organic residues on soil pH were found in both soil layers.

256 The concentration of NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>-N was higher in the Haploxerert than Cambisol, and this  
257 particularly apparent in the sub-layer. The role of the addition of organic residues on soil NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>-N  
258 depended on the soil and kind of biomass added: addition of durum wheat residues increased soil  
259 ammonium-N in top-layer of both soils (+40% in the Cambisol and +102% in the Haploxerert),  
260 whereas NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>-N in the soils amended with faba bean residues was similar to those of the controls.  
261 In the sub-layer of the Cambisol, the effect of the addition of the organic residues was similar to  
262 that observed in the top-layer, whereas addition of both residues strongly increased the NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>-N of



263 Haploxerert comparing to the unamended control (+133% in faba bean and +454% in wheat  
264 residues).

265 The concentration of  $\text{NO}_3^-$ -N in both layers was significantly higher in the Cambisol when  
266 compared with the Haploxerert and this occurred irrespective of the addition of organic residues. In  
267 the Cambisol, addition of faba bean residues reduced  $\text{NO}_3^-$ -N more than wheat residues, especially  
268 in the sub-layer, when compared with the unamended control. In the Haploxerert,  $\text{NO}_3^-$ -N in both  
269 layers did not vary with the addition of plant residues.

270  $\text{NH}_4^+$ -N: $\text{NO}_3^-$ -N ratio differed considerably in the different soil types: in the unamended  
271 controls, it was 6.467 in the Haploxerert and 0.006 in the Cambisol. In the latter, addition of organic  
272 residues to the soil did not influence the  $\text{NH}_4^+$ -N: $\text{NO}_3^-$ -N of either the top- or sub-layer. In the top-  
273 layer of Haploxerert, the addition of organic residues reduced the  $\text{NH}_4^+$ -N: $\text{NO}_3^-$ -N ratio, especially  
274 when faba bean residues were added. In the sub-layer, an opposite result was found and thus  
275 addition of organic residues increased the  $\text{NH}_4^+$ -N: $\text{NO}_3^-$ -N ratio, especially when wheat residues  
276 were added.

## 277 **Greenhouse gas emissions**

278 Carbon dioxide fluxes, measured with IRGA, ranged from a minimum value of  $0.11 \text{ g m}^{-2} \text{ h}^{-1}$   
279 <sup>1</sup> to a maximum value of  $3.64 \text{ g m}^{-2} \text{ h}^{-1}$  (Fig. 2). For almost the entire experimental period, the  
280 Cambisol had a higher  $\text{CO}_2$  emission flux than the Haploxerert. At the beginning of the experiment  
281 the two soil reached the maximum emission flux at the first and second day of measurement with  
282 fluxes of  $3.58 \text{ g m}^{-2} \text{ h}^{-1}$  for the Cambisol and  $1.42 \text{ g m}^{-2} \text{ h}^{-1}$  for the Haploxerert.

283 The highest  $\text{CO}_2$  fluxes were recorded in both soils amended with wheat straw whereas the  
284 lowest in the unamended controls. The differences in emission between the two soils were strong in  
285 the first two weeks of measurement, where the 53.8% and 46.2% of total  $\text{CO}_2$  were emitted from  
286 the Cambisol and the Haploxerert, respectively. After the first two weeks of measurement, the  
287 differences between the two soils reduced and the emission decreased until the end of the  
288 experimental period.

289 The  $\text{CO}_2$  emissions measured with PGA showed a similar trend to those acquired by IRGA.  
290 However, in the first part of the experimental period, PGA emissions were slightly higher than  
291 those observed by the IRGA, especially from the Cambisol. In the second part of the experiment, no  
292 differences between the techniques were found (Fig 2).

293 Total  $\text{CO}_2$  emissions were 74% lower in the unamended Haploxerert ( $198 \text{ g CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2}$ )  
294 compared to the Cambisol ( $765 \text{ g CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2}$ ). Addition of plant residues to the soil increased total  
295 emission to a different extent depending on the soil under study (interaction Soil x Residue Type  
296 significant  $p < 0.001$ ): in the Cambisol, addition of faba bean and wheat resulted in an increase of  
297 24% and 88%, respectively, of the total  $\text{CO}_2$  emissions. In the Haploxerert, no differences were  
298 found between the kind of biomass incorporated, which, on average, increased total  $\text{CO}_2$  emission  
299 by 171% compared to the unamended control (Fig 4).

300 Emissions of  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  during the experiment ranged from  $0.022$  to  $0.348 \text{ mg m}^{-2} \text{ h}^{-1}$  (Fig 5).  
301 However there were large differences between soils with emissions of  $0.024 \text{ mg m}^{-2} \text{ h}^{-1}$  to  $0.117 \text{ mg}$

302  $\text{m}^{-2} \text{h}^{-1}$  and from  $0.022 \text{ mg m}^{-2} \text{h}^{-1}$  to  $0.348 \text{ mg m}^{-2} \text{h}^{-1}$  in the Haploxerert and Cambisol,  
 303 respectively. The Cambisol reached a  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  emission peak at 7 days after the beginning of the  
 304 experiment, whereas the Haploxerert soil showed a continuous and constant reduction of the  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$   
 305 emission from the beginning of the experiment until the end of the trial. In addition, marked  
 306 differences between amended and unamended soil were observed in Cambisol during the first half  
 307 of experiment. The highest fluxes were measured in both soils amended with wheat straw.  
 308 Cumulative  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  emission in the unamended controls of the Cambisol soil was 30% higher than in  
 309 Haploxerert soil ( $85.1$  and  $59.9 \text{ mg N}_2\text{O m}^{-2}$ , respectively). Crop residue addition had a different  
 310 effect in each soil (interaction Soil x Residue Type significant  $p < 0.001$ ). In the Cambisol,  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$   
 311 emissions in the pots amended with wheat was  $159.8 \text{ mg N}_2\text{O m}^{-2}$ , (+88% more than the control)  
 312 and that of the pots amended with faba bean was  $127.0 \text{ mg N}_2\text{O m}^{-2}$ , (+49% than the control). In the  
 313 Haploxerert, faba-bean added pots emitted in total  $80.8 \text{ mg N}_2\text{O m}^{-2}$  (+35% than the control) and  
 314 that added with wheat  $67.2 \text{ mg N}_2\text{O m}^{-2}$  (+12% than the control; Fig 6).

### 315 **Comparisons of gas measurement techniques**

316 Few differences were found for the IRGA and PGA in  $\text{CO}_2$  measurement when compared  
 317 with that from the GC. The determination factor was 0.937  
 318 ( $y_{GC} = 1.0534x_{IRGA} - 0.0221 \text{ g CO}_2 \text{m}^{-2} \text{h}^{-1}$ ) and 0.925 ( $y_{GC} = 0.9887x_{PGA} - 0.0095 \text{ g CO}_2 \text{m}^{-2} \text{h}^{-1}$ ) for  
 319 IRGA and PGA, respectively and index of agreement was 0.998 for both instruments.

320 With regards to the  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  measurement, the linear regression between GC and PGA showed a  
 321 relatively high relationship between the results ( $R^2 = 0.90$ ;  
 322 ( $y_{GC} = 0.8993x_{PGA} - 0.0063 \text{ mg N}_2\text{O m}^{-2} \text{h}^{-1}$ )), although PGA- $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  were, on average, 5.2 % higher  
 323 than the GC- $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  measurements. However, in this case, the index of agreement was also 0.998.

324 The comparison between  $\text{CO}_2$  measurements obtained by IRGA and PGA across the entire  
 325 experimental period (more than 600 measurements) showed a high correlation between the two  
 326 instruments ( $R^2 = 0.95$ ; IoAd = 0.996; ( $y_{IRGA} = 1.0118x_{PGA} - 0.0003 \text{ g CO}_2 \text{m}^{-2} \text{h}^{-1}$ )). However, the  
 327 cumulative  $\text{CO}_2$  emissions measured by PGA were on average 9% higher than those measured by  
 328 IRGA. Differences in  $\text{CO}_2$  fluxes from the two soils were apparent from the different measurement  
 329 techniques. Thus although the overall  $\text{CO}_2$  fluxes measured by PGA were 6% higher than IRGA,  
 330 such differences were up to 10% greater when the comparison was limited to the Haploxerert soil,  
 331 and up to 17% when only the control plots were considered. In the Cambisol the differences between  
 332 the instruments were lower at around 5%.

## 334 **Discussion**

### 335 **$\text{N}_2\text{O}$ and $\text{CO}_2$ emission and soil properties**

336 This study evaluated the effect of soil incorporation of two different plant residues on  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$   
 337 and  $\text{CO}_2$  emissions. The characteristics of two soils were distinctly different, with the Cambisol  
 338 having a low pH and high SOC while the Haploxerert had a high pH and low SOC. Emissions and  
 339 soil parameters varied according to both the kind of residue added and the soil type. The total  $\text{CO}_2$   
 340 and  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  emissions, (measured by PGA), from the unamended Cambisol were 249% and 40%  
 341 higher than the unamended Haploxerert, respectively, suggesting large differences in biochemical  
 342 and microbial activity between both soils driven by differences in soil physical and chemical

properties. Moreover, the differences in CO<sub>2</sub> emissions between the two soils followed the differences in stable-C (TOC was 78% higher in the Cambisol than in Haploxerert) and readily available-C (DOC in the Cambisol was double that in the Haploxerert). This latter form, although it may be preferentially utilized by soil microorganisms, can be protected by soil aggregates or adsorbed by mineral particles (Majumder and Kuzyakov 2010; Steinbeiss et al. 2008; Shi et al. 2014). The higher CO<sub>2</sub> emissions (per unit of carbon present in the soil) from Cambisol were nevertheless a reflection of differences in the carbon pools. Such a differences suggest that the Haploxerert had a relatively low respiration rate, which may have been a consequence of protection by the higher clay content in the Haploxerert of SOC pools (Baldock and Skjemstad 2000; Krull et al. 2003; Lutzow et al. 2006; Alluvione et al. 2013; Six and Paustian 2014), and coupled with relatively low soil microbial activity due to a low free substrate availability. Another important aspect related to the clay content is its mineralogy; the Haploxerert is characterized by prominent swelling-shrinkage behaviour, which suggests that a high content of montmorillonite, can slow down organic matter decomposition by absorption, interacting with soil microbes and their external enzyme activity or limiting oxygen diffusion (Vogel et al. 2015). In addition, a recent highly reliable model on SOC on the region the Haploxerert in the present study came from confirmed that these kind of soil (along with other vertisols) have a high ability to stabilize the soil organic matter (Schillaci et al, 2017; Saia et al. 2017). CO<sub>2</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>O fluxes reached a peak in the within the first week of incubation, and were higher in the Cambisol than in the Haploxerert. The transient effects of the CO<sub>2</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>O emission rates were likely to have resulted from increased gas diffusivity due to the soil disturbance in the establishment of the experiment and the rapid decomposition of the highly-labile free organic fraction (either added or not) (Magid et al. 1999; Baggs et al. 2006). Crop residue distribution within the soil, as reported by several authors (Curtin et al. 1998; Jacinthe et al. 2002; Lian et al. 2016) stimulated and increased CO<sub>2</sub> emissions but with different magnitudes in the two soils. In particular, the difference in CO<sub>2</sub> emissions between soils was reduced when an organic residue (either faba bean or wheat) was added. The Cambisol emitted +88% and +152% more CO<sub>2</sub> than the Haploxerert when faba bean and wheat residues were added, respectively. Similar differences were found for N<sub>2</sub>O emission between soils amended with organic residues. These findings are supported by research by An et al. (2015) where straw C input to the soil was more effective at stimulating microbial activity and extractable organic carbon in a low fertility soil, than in a high fertility soil, probably as a consequence of the starvation of the soil microbial community (Bastida et al. 2013) and also a possible effect of clay which increases the contact between the substrate and microorganisms. However, their experiment used a soil with a lower clay content (24.9%), and we expect that in the soil used in our study which was more rich in clay (52.5%), this effect was less important due to the absorption effects described above. Other studies have shown that an increasing clay content (achieved by making artificial soils) accelerated the decomposition rate of added organic matter supporting the concept that clay can have a primary role in influencing decomposition-stabilization processes in the soil regulating the nutrient available for microorganisms, emissions and organic carbon stabilization and sequestration (Velthof et al. 2002; Six and Paustian 2014; Wei et al. 2014; Bajgai et al. 2014). Nitrous oxide emissions from the Haploxerert were affected also by soil clay content and it's direct action on N immobilization processes, as observed also by Begum et al. (2014) in an experiment conducted in a same type of soil (Vertisol) with a comparable clay content (62%), closely linked to the stabilization of the organic matter and confirmed by the high NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>-N:NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>-N observed. Furthermore, as result of the

the high cation exchangeable capacity of this soil ( $35 \text{ cmol kg}^{-1}$ ) the addition of organic matter had a no effect on the pH, whilst in the Cambisol the wheat straw significantly reduced pH, most probably as a consequence of the nitrification process which may acidify soil due to the release of  $\text{H}^+$  ions (Van Miegroet and Cole 1983). This would have been promoted by the high degradability of wheat residues, that produced a higher nitrate content in the soil and promoted gaseous emissions (both  $\text{CO}_2$  and  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$ ) compared to the soil where faba bean was added. In another experiment Aye et al. (2016) using wheat and field-pea, with a different C:N ratio, as residues in a soil with 29% clay found an increase in the decomposition process up to pH 7.4. However, in our experiment, although the pH of the Haploxerert was slightly higher (7.8), the lower DOC concentration,  $\text{CO}_2$  and  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  fluxes in Haploxerert, suggest that the lower decomposition rates that can be linked to the much higher clay content (52.5%) confirming the dominant influence of clay as key factor in determining nutrient turnover and emissions in this soil. The original pH of the soil may have played a role in determining the magnitude of  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  emissions by the soil microbial community. As reported from Rousk et al. (2009), an acid pH at around 6 can stimulate fungal growth; fungi are recognized for not having the ability to synthesise nitrous oxide reductase and their denitrification end product is therefore  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$ . Other studies have reported that fungi could contribute up to 18% of potential denitrification (Herold et al. 2012). Thus pH differences may also have contributed to differences in  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  emissions from soils.

There was a clear correlation between  $\text{CO}_2$  and  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  emissions in both soils, although this was greater in the Cambisol, where oxygen depletion and  $\text{CO}_2$  emissions could have helped create anaerobic microsites in the soil increasing denitrification and  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  production (Gök and Ottow 1988; Aulakh et al. 1991; Begum et al. 2014; Nett et al. 2015). The mineralization rate of an organic residue added to the soil mostly depends on its C:N ratio and to a lesser extent to its lignin:N ratio and fibre content (Trinsoutrot et al. 2000; Nguyen and Marschner 2016; Cheng et al. 2015). However, in the present study, the difference in the C:N ratio of the residues used (38.6 in faba bean and 40.7 in wheat) does not explain the difference in soil mineral N concentration and  $\text{CO}_2$  and  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  emissions between the crop residues. Thus, it is more likely that mineralization rate of faba bean residues was lower than wheat residues due to the different lignin, acid detergent, and neutral detergent fibre contents (+188%, +66%, +19%, respectively in faba bean comparing to wheat).

The incorporation of plant residues, either of wheat or faba bean, introduced contrasting effects on the  $\text{NH}_4^+\text{-N}$  and  $\text{NO}_3^-\text{-N}$  concentrations on each of the soils. The addition of plant residues increased the  $\text{NH}_4^+\text{-N}$  concentration of the Haploxerert, but not that of the Cambisol, and such an increase was more evident when wheat residues were added. At the same time, addition of plant residues reduced the total  $\text{NO}_3^-\text{-N}$  content of the Cambisol, but not that of the Haploxerert, and such an effect was more evident when faba bean residues were added. Such a result points to a net immobilization process in the soil due to consumption of N in order to decompose organic C (Corbeels et al. 2000; Jin et al. 2013). In the Haploxerert, a similar quantity of total  $\text{CO}_2$  was emitted after the addition of both crop residues, but the faba-bean addition showed a slightly higher  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  emission than wheat addition treatment coupled with lower  $\text{NO}_3^-\text{-N}$  content at the end of the experiment. Thus, it is likely that in this soil, which was characterized by a lower soil microbial activity, the lower mineralization of faba bean residues led to a more constant availability of labile C and N, due stimulating bacterial and fungal activity along the experiment until the end, and as consequence, denitrification in soil microsites as reported from other authors (Deenik 2006; Shah et

al. 2016). By contrast, wheat residues produced a rapid flush in emission in the initial phase of the experiment and shown at the end of the experiment higher  $\text{NH}_4^+\text{-N}$  and  $\text{NO}_3^-\text{-N}$  concentration in to the soil suggesting other limitation. This selective activity of microbes induced by the residue composition results in readily available straw C being used more rapidly while more recalcitrant and stable compounds are decomposed more slowly (Majumder and Kuzyakov 2010). In the Cambisol both crop residues showed the same trend in gas emissions, ( $\text{CO}_2$  and  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$ ), due to a direct effect of residue characteristics on decomposition and N availability. The rapid mineralization of wheat resulted lower DOC and higher  $\text{NH}_4^+\text{-N}$  and  $\text{NO}_3^-\text{-N}$  concentrations and a reduction in pH, as described above. In the case of faba bean the higher presence of recalcitrant compounds, in particular lignin, slowed down nutrient release and decreased emissions.

#### Comparison between gas flux measurement techniques

This study has clearly demonstrated that IRGA and PGA methodologies used to measure  $\text{CO}_2$  and  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  emissions provided data consistent with that measured by GC. The comparison of  $\text{CO}_2$  and  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  emission rates measured by IRGA and PGA was very strong correlated with GC measurements, an observation also reported by other authors (Pumpanen et al. 2004; Iqbal et al. 2013; Nicoloso et al. 2013; Tirol-Padre et al. 2014). In particular, the same trend was observed for both gas fluxes measured in the Cambisol and Haploxerert, which were characterized by different patterns of  $\text{CO}_2$  and  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  emissions. Similar results to those observed in the present experiment were found for  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  fluxes by Iqbal et al. (2013), who reported a slightly higher emissions with PGA than with GC (+5%), However, by contrast, we didn't find any difference in  $\text{CO}_2$  flux measurements when comparing PGA and GC. Nicoloso et al. (2013) observed an overestimation of 18.6% and 13.6% comparing PGA to GC, for  $\text{CO}_2$  and  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  respectively; we did not find any differences between the techniques, which may have been due to the lower gas concentrations measured during our experiment. That also defined, the positive effect of the compensation against water vapor and cross interference, the two main sources of interference on measurement, during the experiments.

With regard to the accuracy of  $\text{CO}_2$  emission data recorded by IRGA, if comparing our performance with those obtained from Pumpanen et al. (2004), the latter of which are based on  $\text{CO}_2$  concentration measurements, we obtained better results with very similar fluxes between IRGA and GC. The quality of data obtained from EGM-4 IRGA used in the present study was also confirmed by Mills et al. (2011) who found good similarity in soil respiration flux with a different IRGA type. However, PGA was found to have some limitations in reporting  $\text{CO}_2$  fluxes measured by IRGA in the first part of the experiment and monitoring the emissions of Haploxerert control in the later part of the experiment, showing some difficult on measure low and high peak of emission producing a slight overestimation on data. At medium and low emission rates the instruments performances were similar and this was also confirmed by GC. Taking into account the reliability of data, together with the speed of measurement, and the capacity to obtain high resolution temporal data, this study highlights the benefits of using online IRGA and PGA measurements in studies of residue decomposition. When applied in the field experiment, the short time required from IRGA and PGA to take a measurement of emission provides an opportunity to make more measurements permitting a higher spatial and temporal resolution. In the case of the PGA, the results produced had a

471 considerable importance due to the possibility of this instrument to measure two or more gaseous  
472 compounds simultaneously Horsley et al. 2014.

473 Finally, although the chamber techniques coupled with GC is considered the reference  
474 technique for the GHG monitoring, direct measurement by these devices eliminates many of the  
475 risks resulting from sampling pitfalls and sample storage that can negatively affect the  
476 measurements (Cowan et al. 2014; Tirol-Padre et al. 2014). For the specific application to GHG  
477 studies, the initial cost and maintenance can be lower than GC systems, requiring also less  
478 specialized staff to operate. The comparison of CO<sub>2</sub> emissions rates measured by IRGA and PGA  
479 across the entire experimental period revealed, overall, that there were small differences between  
480 both methods.

## 481 **Conclusions**

482 Soil plays a major role in controlling GHG emissions to the atmosphere and are a key  
483 determinant of emissions originating from plant residues. Our study demonstrated, when  
484 comparing two different soils, how specific proprieties, such as clay content and pH, can  
485 significantly alter decomposition, immobilization and gaseous emissions. These results have  
486 implications for developing low-C management practices, especially under organic farming systems  
487 where residue management could be a strategy to replace mineral fertilizers and limit C footprint. In  
488 Vertisols, which are widespread, but less well understood, CO<sub>2</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>O emissions were strongly  
489 controlled by clay content limiting emissions, promoting C sequestration and N transfer to next crop  
490 cycle. Although many studies on the decomposition of residues have focused on C/N ratios, this  
491 study highlights the importance of fibre compounds, often referred to as secondary, on determining  
492 soil CO<sub>2</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>O emissions and as their effect can change in relation to the soil characteristics. In  
493 particular, in soil with high organic carbon contents and microbial activity such as a Cambisol, the  
494 crop residue type determined the total emission. There was a unique trend for higher emissions of  
495 both gases (CO<sub>2</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>O) in the presence of more decomposable wheat than with recalcitrant faba  
496 bean. In Haploxerert, by contrast, the slower decomposition of crop residues resulted in a similar  
497 CO<sub>2</sub> release from the different residues, but slightly higher N<sub>2</sub>O emissions from faba bean.

498 The direct comparison between IRGA and PGA and their validation with GC confirmed that  
499 these two techniques are equivalent in providing reliable data for long-term monitoring, and this  
500 occurred under various conditions (differing soil type residue addition). This result is important  
501 when considering that GC-based methodologies need of a number of sample steps from gas  
502 collection, transport, sample storage, and analysis, each of which can potentially add error to the  
503 measurement. In addition, GC-based methodologies are not able to provide a continuous  
504 measurement of the GHG emissions and thus are poor at quantifying temporal variability. By  
505 contrast, the high sensitivity of IRGA and PGA, range and ease of application, number of gases  
506 analyzed (including water vapor) allow a better monitoring of the radiative force of the soil while  
507 eliminating many of the risks of the GC-based methodologies.

508

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769 **Tables and Figures**

770 **Table 1** Main properties of soils.

<b>Soil Properties</b>	<b>Scotland Bush Estate</b>	<b>Sicily Pietranera</b>
Soil classification	Eutric Cambisol	Chromic Haploxerert (Vertisol)
Soil series	Macmerry	Gessoso-solfifera (sulphurous-chalky)
Texture	Sandy-loam	Clay-loam
Coordinates	55.9 N, 3.2 W	37.3 N, 13.3 W
Altitude	199	178
Slope [%]	6	7
Clay [%]	12.7	52.5
Silt [%]	15.7	21.6
Sand [%]	71.6	25.9
pH	6.6	8.1
Field capacity (pF 2.5) [%]	36	38
Permanent wilting point (pF 4.5) [%]	20	16
Organic matter [%]	4.3	2.4
Total N [%]	0.21	0.13

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774 **Table 2** Composition of crop residues.

<b>Chemical properties of crop residues</b>	<b>Faba Bean</b>	<b>Durum Wheat</b>
Organic Matter	91.8	92.1
N content	1.4	1.3
Crude protein	8.8	8.1
Ether extract	1.1	1.7
Acid detergent fibre (ADF)	48.0	28.8
Acid detergent lignin (ADL)	10.0	3.5
Cellulose	38	25.3
Neutral detergent fibre (NDF)	54.0	45.4
Hemicellulose	6	16.6
Ash	8.2	7.9
ADL Ash	0.4	3.2

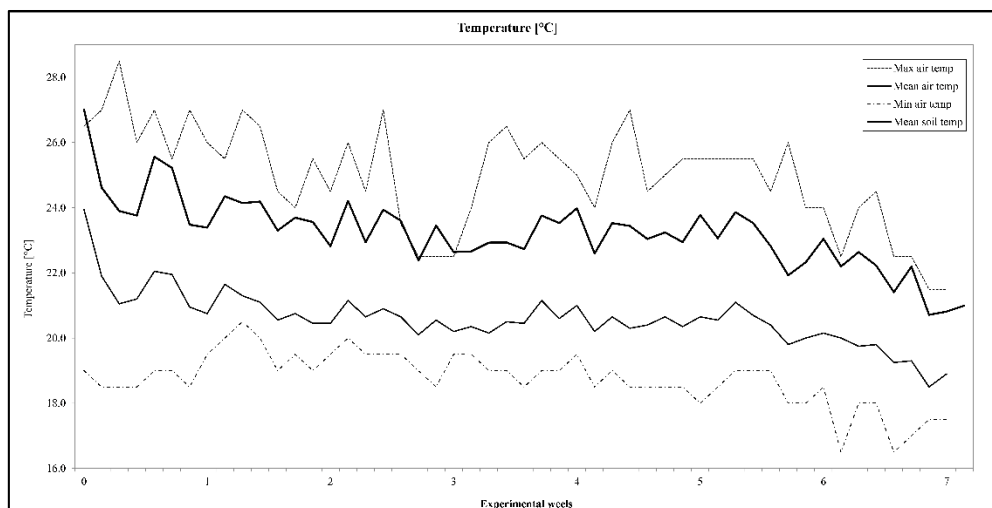
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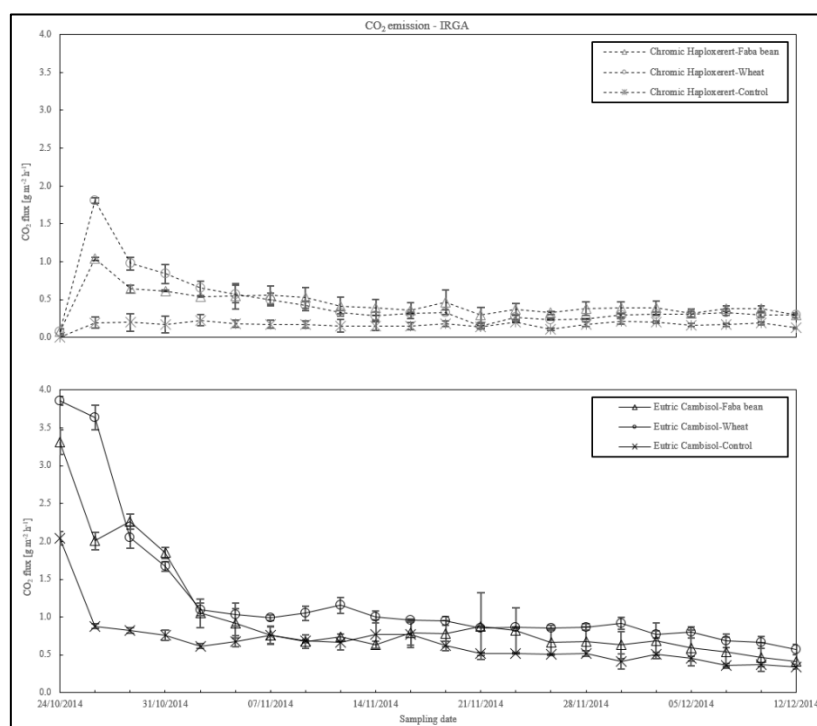
**Table 3** Effect of the addition of two crop residues (Durum wheat or fababean, and unamended control) on Dissolved Organic C (DOC), pH,  $\text{NH}_4^+$ -N and  $\text{NO}_3^-$ -N content and  $\text{NH}_4^+$ -N:  $\text{NO}_3^-$ -N ratios in 0-5 cm and 5-15 cm soil layers of a Chromic Haploxerert and Eutric Cambisol soils.

		Chromic Haploxerert			Eutric Cambisol			<i>P</i>		
		Faba bean	Durum wheat	No addition	Faba bean	Durum wheat	No addition	Soil	Residue Type	<i>S</i> × <i>T</i>
<b>0-5 cm soil layer</b>										
DOC	mg C kg <sup>-1</sup> soil	42.5	43.2	33.6	73.5	67.6	67.2	<.001	0.000	0.007
pH	-	7.7	7.8	7.8	5.8	5.4	5.9	<.001	0.009	0.019
$\text{NH}_4^+$ -N	mg N kg <sup>-1</sup> soil	1.6	3.3	1.7	0.9	1.3	0.9	<.001	<.001	<.001
$\text{NO}_3^-$ -N	mg N kg <sup>-1</sup> soil	0.4	2.4	0.3	104.6	149.6	164.5	<.001	0.001	0.001
$\text{NH}_4^+$ -N: $\text{NO}_3^-$ -N	-	4.3	1.4	6.5	0.009	0.008	0.006	<.001	0.001	0.001
<b>5-15 cm soil layer</b>										
DOC	mg C kg <sup>-1</sup> soil	75.9	83.0	48.1	86.4	93.1	91.8	<.001	<.001	<.001
pH	-	7.7	7.7	7.8	5.9	5.6	5.8	<.001	0.037	0.043
$\text{NH}_4^+$ -N	mg N kg <sup>-1</sup> soil	13.5	32.0	5.8	1.1	1.5	0.9	<.001	<.001	<.001
$\text{NO}_3^-$ -N	mg N kg <sup>-1</sup> soil	0.5	0.5	0.8	36.9	43.3	66.4	<.001	<.001	<.001
$\text{NH}_4^+$ -N: $\text{NO}_3^-$ -N	-	25.7	62.9	7.3	0.030	0.034	0.014	<.001	<.001	<.001

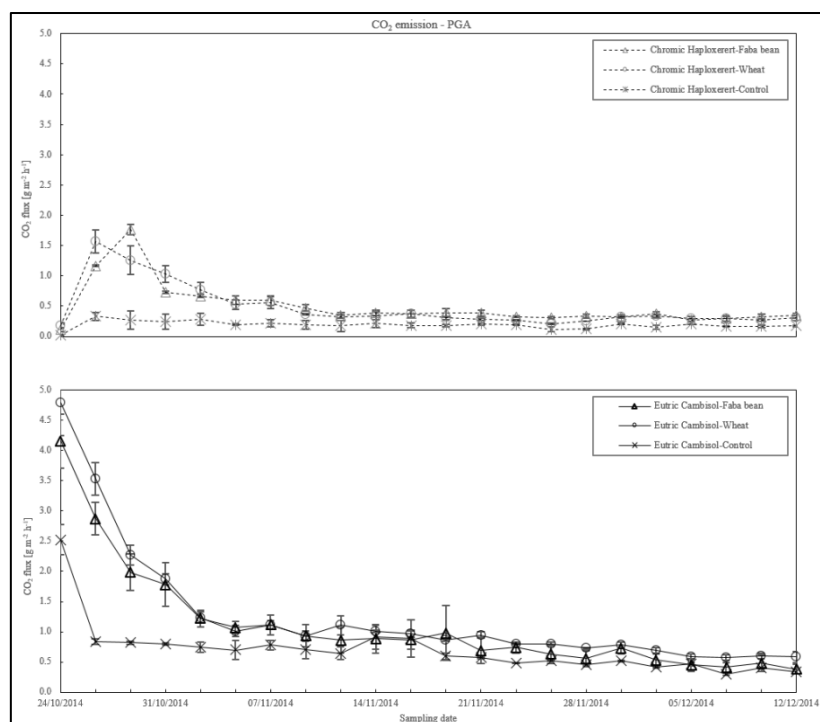




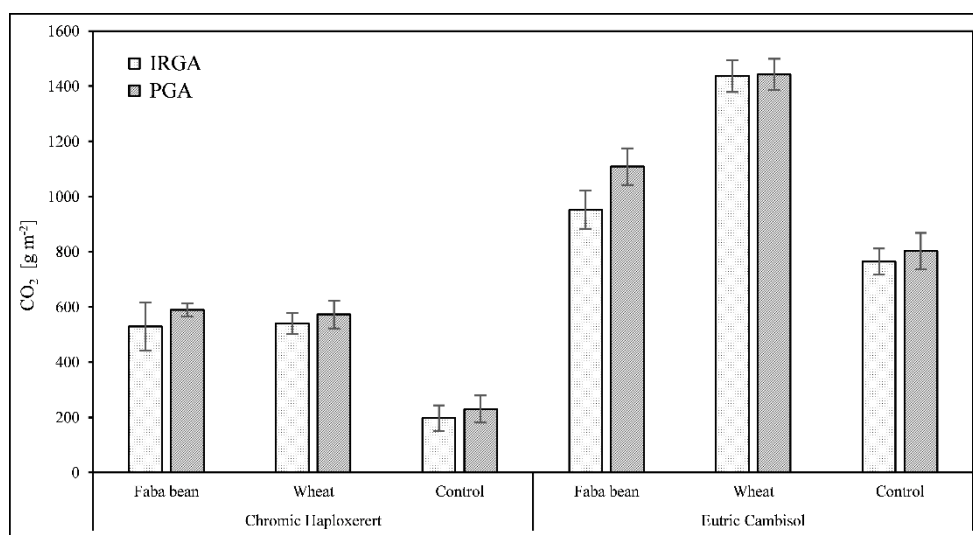
**Fig. 1** Daily minimum, maximum, mean air temperature in the greenhouse and mean soil temperature during the experiment



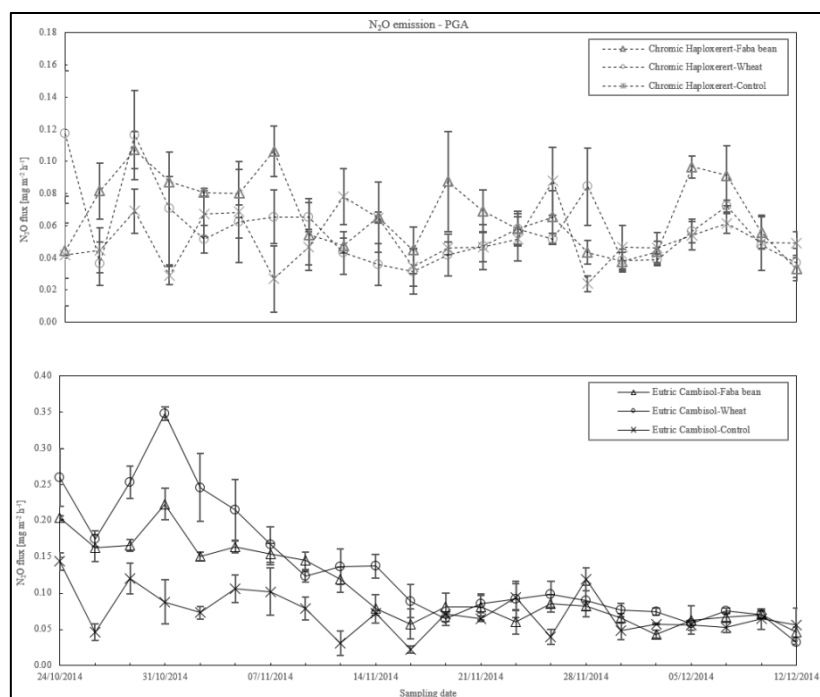
**Fig. 2** CO<sub>2</sub> emission course from Chronic Haploxerert and Eutric Cambisol amended with faba bean and wheat residues, or unamended (control), measured with IRGA during the experimental period. Data are means±S.E (n=3)



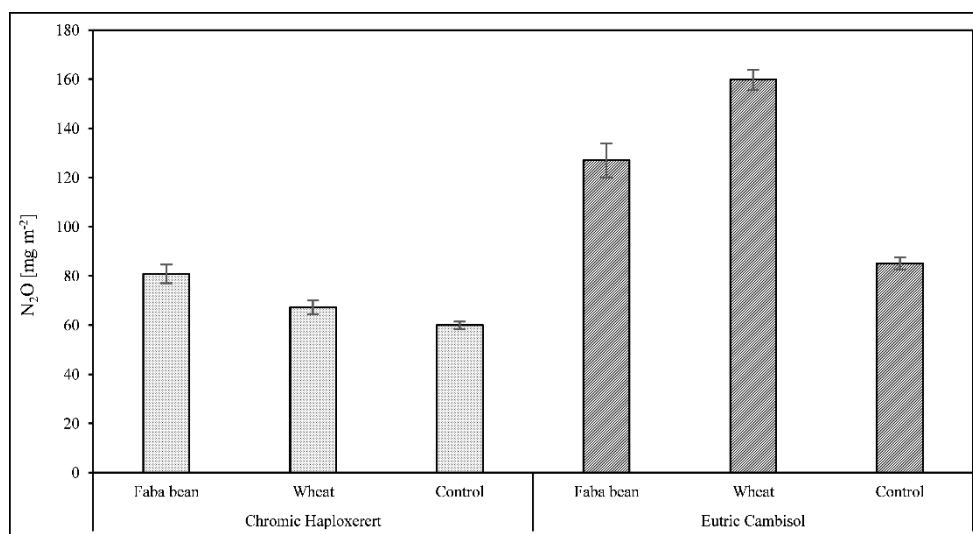
**Fig. 3** CO<sub>2</sub> emission course from the Chromic Haploxerert and Eutric Cambisol soils amended with faba bean and wheat biomass, or unamended (control), measured with PGA during the experimental period. Data are means±S.E (n=3)



**Fig. 4** Total CO<sub>2</sub> emission from the Chromic Haploxerert and Eutric Cambisol amended with faba bean and wheat biomass, or unamended (control), measured with IRGA and PGA. Data are means±S.E (n=3)



**Fig. 5** N<sub>2</sub>O emission course from the Chromic Haploxerert and Eutric Cambisol amended with faba bean and wheat biomass, or unamended (control), measured with PGA during the experimental period. Data are means±S.E (n=3)



**Fig. 6** Total N<sub>2</sub>O emission from the Chromic Haploxerert and Eutric Cambisol soils amended with faba bean and wheat biomass, or unamended (control), measured with PGA. Data are means±S.E (n=3)